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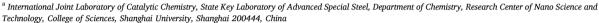
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## Mo promoting Ni-based catalysts confined by halloysite nanotubes for dry reforming of methane: Insight of coking and H<sub>2</sub>S poisoning resistance





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#### ABSTRACT

Dry reforming of methane (DRM) shows promise for converting greenhouse gases into syngas but developing stable Ni-based catalysts resistant to sintering, coking, and H<sub>2</sub>S poisoning is challenging. We developed a highly effective catalyst by confining Mo-promoted Ni-based catalysts within halloysite nanotubes. Mo alloying with Ni inhibits Ni particles' migration out of the nanotubes, preventing the sintering of metals while decreasing the graphitic degree of carbon, which can balance the formation and removal of coke. Mo slows down H<sub>2</sub>S poisoning on Ni by adsorbing it competitively, maintaining a balance between carbon formation and removal even when H<sub>2</sub>S adsorbed on Mo hinders its role. With the inclusion of Mo, the rate of deactivation in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>S was reduced by half. Our research highlights the numerous advantages of Mo species and draws a correlation between carbon deposition and H<sub>2</sub>S poisoning, which offer new insights for designing efficient DRM catalysts.

#### 1. Introduction

The increase in greenhouse gas emissions leads to severe global warming. As two primary greenhouse gases, utilizing CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> comprehensively and efficiently is significant for mitigating climate warming [1,2]. Dry reforming of methane (DRM) can convert these greenhouse gases into syngas (CO, H<sub>2</sub>) with a ratio of 1:1, which can be used in Fischer-Tropsch synthesis to produce high value-added chemicals to realize effective conversion and utilization of resources while reducing greenhouse gas emissions [3,4]. Ni-based catalysts are widely used in DRM reactions due to the low cost and catalytic performance comparable to that of precious metals. However, Ni-based catalysts are susceptible to the sintering of active components and coke deposition in high-temperature reactions, which lead to the deactivation of catalysts [5–7]. In addition, biogas contains certain H<sub>2</sub>S impurities. It has strong chemisorption on metal surfaces, especially for Ni, which can cause active metal poisoning and seriously affect the catalytic performance [8-11]. Therefore, it is essential to design an efficient and stable Ni-based catalyst with resistance to sintering, carbon deposition, and H<sub>2</sub>S poisoning for DRM.

There are many reports on improving the sintering and coking resistance of Ni-based catalysts, such as enhancing metal-support

interaction, structural confinement and adding additives, etc. Generally, strong metal-support interaction (SMSI) is known to help inhibit metal sintering, and manufacturing defect sites and spinel exsolution are effective ways to enhance the SMSI, facilitating the anchoring of Ni [12–14]. In addition, small-size Ni nanoparticles (NPs) are certified to effectively inhibit sintering and coking [15,16]. Moreover, researchers studied the confinement effect derived from the steric hindrance effect, which would hinder particle migration and growth [17]. For example, a hollow pure silicon molecular sieve or mesoporous silica can be used to fabricate Ni NPs with high dispersion and uniform size [18]. The steric confinement effect significantly controls the size of metal particles and inhibits the sintering and coking of particles. Furthermore, alloying Ni with other high melting point metals would contribute to improve the dispersion of metal NPs and sintering resistance of catalysts. Simultaneously, alloying can regulate the electronic state of the active metal to promote the activity of catalysts [19-23]. Consequently, the combination of steric confinement and alloying strategy would be promising for the fabrication of Ni-based catalysts with coking and sintering

Generally, the impurity of  $H_2S$  depend on the resource of  $CH_4$ . For example, the  $H_2S$  in biogas produced by anaerobic digestion of organic matter is 0–3% [11]. Currently, relatively little attention has been paid

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to the  $\rm H_2S$  poisoning effect of Ni-based catalysts in DRM reactions. Some typical anti-poisoning methods in the existing research include oxidizing sulfide [24,25], adding metal additives [8,26], and creating sacrifice sites [27–29] etc. For instance, Theofanidis et al. studied the effect of Rh in Ni-based catalysts on  $\rm H_2S$  impurities during steam-dry reforming, showing that Ni-Rh surface alloys inhibited the dissociation of  $\rm H_2S$  [8]. Moreover, the core-shell structure where the outer layer served as the protected layer was designed to improve the  $\rm H_2S$  tolerance of Ni-based catalysts [24]. In addition, according to Liu et al. [27], Mo species can enhance the resistance to  $\rm H_2S$  poisoning by competing with it for adsorption. This, in turn, helps to prevent the deactivation of SiO<sub>2</sub>-supported Ni catalysts. Nevertheless, it remains unclear how the combined impact of  $\rm H_2S$  poisoning, coking, and metal sintering affect Ni-based catalysts for DRM.

Halloysite nanotubes (Al<sub>2</sub>Si<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>(OH)<sub>4</sub>·nH<sub>2</sub>O, HNTs) are natural, tubular aluminosilicate clay minerals possessing good thermal stability and unique hollow tubular structure, which can be used as ideal natural nanocarrier [30,31]. Abundant surface groups of HNTs with an internal alumina layer (Al-OH) and an external silicate layer (Si-O-Si) are good active sites for anchoring oxides and allow a wide variety of chemical modifications [32–34]. Recently, the high melting point transition metal Mo species have been shown to be effective in eliminating carbon deposition in DRM, and the catalytic effect is superior when the molar ratio of Ni-Mo is between 4 and 5 [35-37]. In addition, the Mo component is widely used in various desulfurization processes due to its excellent absorption and resistance to sulfur components [38,39]. However, the simultaneous application of Mo to inhibit carbon deposition and resist H<sub>2</sub>S poisoning in DRM has not been reported. Herein, we fabricated Mo modified Ni-based catalysts confined in HNTs (NiMo/A-H), which improved coking resistance and alleviate H2S poisoning of catalysts. The effect between H2S poisoning and carbon deposition was revealed through in situ Raman characterization. Compared with other Ni-based catalysts focused on resisting sulfur poisoning, NiMo/A-H catalyst possesses good resistance to sintering and carbon deposition, as well as sulfur tolerance, which is a comprehensive catalyst with multiple resistance. This provides a new idea for designing efficient DRM catalysts with carbon deposition resistance and H2S resistance.

#### 2. Experiments

#### 2.1. Preparation of catalysts

#### 2.1.1. Pretreatment of Halloysite Nanotubes

The HNTs were treated with acid to selectively etch alumina inside the HNTs tubes in a process like that described by Garcia-Garcia et al.  $\cite{[40]}$ . 2 g HNTs were added to 200 mL acetic acid solution with a concentration of 1.0 M and stirred on a heating plate at 50 °C for 72 h. Afterwards, the HNTs that were chemically modified underwent centrifugation and were rinsed using deionized water until the pH level reached between 6 and 7. Finally, acid-treated HNTs were dried overnight in an oven at 80 °C and were denoted as A-H.

#### 2.1.2. Synthesis of Catalysts

Catalysts were synthesized by wet impregnation method. Firstly, Ni  $({\rm NO_3})_2\cdot 6~H_2{\rm O},~({\rm NH_4})_6{\rm Mo_7}{\rm O}_{24}\cdot 6~H_2{\rm O},~{\rm and~A-H}$  were mixed in deionized water, dissolved by ultrasound for 20 min, and then stirred at 40 °C for 3 h. After stirring vigorously, the mixture was dried by rotary evaporation and then dried in an oven at 80 °C for 24 h. The solids were obtained by calcination at 550 °C for 6 h in a muffle furnace. The Ni/Mo molar ratio of synthesized catalyst is 4:1, and the catalyst was denoted as NiMo/A-H. Catalysts with different Ni/Mo ratios were denoted as Ni $_3{\rm Mo_1},$  Ni $_4{\rm Mo_1}({\rm NiMo/A-H})$  and Ni $_5{\rm Mo_1},$  respectively.

As comparison, Ni/A-H catalysts were prepared through the same method as above without molybdate species. Ni/H catalysts were fabricated by using the untreated HNTs as the support. The Ni content

for all catalysts was controlled at 5 wt%.

#### 2.2. Catalysts characterization

#### 2.2.1. In situ study

The 20 mg sample was placed into the ceramic tube in the Linkam reactor. Raman experiments were performed using a 325 nm laser on the LabRAM HR Evolution. The spectra were acquired in the 100–2000 cm $^{-1}$  range with 0.65 cm $^{-1}$  of spectral resolution. In situ spectra over Ni/A-H and NiMo/A-H catalysts were carried out in a flow of CH<sub>4</sub> /CO<sub>2</sub> /N<sub>2</sub> (H<sub>2</sub>S) (10/10/10 mL/min) at 800 °C after pretreated under N<sub>2</sub> at 300 °C for 30 min. Test conditions: Acq. time: 6 s, Accumulation: 2, Objective: x15\_NUV, Grating: 1800, Total data points: 9.

#### 2.2.2. Catalyst test

All catalysts were reduced in 10%  $\rm H_2/N_2$  at 750 °C for 1 h before the DRM reaction. The activity and stability of the catalysts (0.12 g sample diluted by 0.8 g 20–40 mesh quartz) were carried out in a quartz fixed-bed tubular reactor with a total gas flow rate of 140 mL/min (CH<sub>4</sub>/CO<sub>2</sub> = 1:1, GHSV = 70,000 mL·g $^{-1}\cdot h^{-1}$ ). The catalytic activity was successively increased by increasing the reaction temperature from 600 °C to 800 °C. The stability was performed at 800 °C for 50 h. An online gas chromatograph equipped with TCD was used to analyze the products.

 $H_2S$  resistance test of the catalysts was tested at 800  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  with the reactant gas stream  $\text{CH}_4/\text{CO}_2/\text{H}_2S=1:1:0.17$  (3.2 ppm  $H_2S$  balanced with  $N_2$ ), GHSV  $=62,000~\text{mL}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ . The DRM process was conducted for half an hour without the presence of  $H_2S$ , and then  $H_2S$  was flowed for three hours. Then,  $H_2S$  was switched into  $N_2$ , and the catalyst activity recovery over time was recorded.

The conversion of CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> was calculated as follows:

$$X_{CH_{4}}(\%) \; = \frac{[CH_{4}]_{\; in} - [CH_{4}]_{\; out}}{[CH_{4}]_{\; in}} \times 100$$

$$X_{CO_2}(\%) \ = \frac{\left[CO_2\right]_{\ in} - \left[CO_2\right]_{\ out}}{\left[CO_2\right]_{\ in}} \times 100$$

Where  $[CH_4]$  and  $[CO_2]$  represent the peak area of the inlet and outlet measured by TCD.

The  $H_2/CO$  ratio of product was determined by:

$$\frac{H_2}{CO} = \frac{H_2 produced(mol)}{COproduced(mol)}$$

Turnover frequencies (s<sup>-1</sup>) were calculated from the following:

$$TOF_{CH_4} = \frac{n[CH_4]}{Weight \ of \ catalyst \times w_{Ni}/58.69 \times Dispersion \times 60}$$

$$TOF_{CO_2} = \frac{n[CO_2]}{\text{Weight of catalyst} \times w_{Ni}/58.69 \times \text{Dispersion} \times 60}$$

where  $w_{Ni}$  is the weight percent of Ni over catalyst, and metal dispersion was determined by CO chemisorption experiments. n represents the molar conversion rate of CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub>.

#### 2.2.3. Computational details

To gain insights into the poison-resistance of NiMo alloy catalysts towards  $H_2S$ , we conducted density functional theory (DFT) calculations to investigate the adsorption of  $H_2S$  on both Ni and NiMo catalysts. The computational methodology used in this study follows the procedure reported in our previous work. In brief, periodic DFT calculations were performed using the Vienna ab initio simulation package (VASP) [41]. The interactions between electrons and nuclei were described using projector-augmented wave pseudopotentials [42]. The exchange-correlation effects of electrons were treated using the generalized gradient approximation (GGA) with the Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof (PBE) functional [43]. The energy cutoff of 400 eV was chosen for all

calculations. To explain van der Waals interactions, we incorporated the DFT-D3 method proposed by Grimme et al. [44]. The Brillouin zone was sampled using a  $3\times 3\times 1$  k-point mesh for all calculations [45]. Specifically, we constructed Ni and NiMo (111) surfaces with dimensions of  $4\times 4$  and  $2\times 2$ , respectively.

The adsorption energy of  $H_2S$  on Ni and NiMo (111) surfaces was determined using the following equation:  $E_{ads}=E_{H2S/surface}-(E_{H2S}+E_{surface}).$ 

In this equation,  $E_{H2S/surface}$  represents the total energy of the  $H_2S/surface$  complex, whereas  $E_{H2S}$  and  $E_{surface}$  correspond to the total energies of the isolated  $H_2S$  molecule and the pristine surface, respectively. According to this equation, a more negative value of the adsorption energy indicates a stronger adsorption of  $H_2S$  on the surface.

#### 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1. Characterization of fresh catalysts

The NiMo/A-H catalyst was obtained by co-impregnating metal precursors over acid-treated HNTs (A-H), followed by hydrogen reduction after the calcination process. The synthesis procedure of NiMo/A-H is shown in Fig. 1. HNTs were first treated with acetic acid, which can selectively etch alumina in the inner layer of HNTs [40]. Elemental content analysis of the untreated and acid-treated HNTs (Table S1) shows that the Si/Al ratio of A-H is higher than that of HNTs, indicating that the Al content of the support is reduced after acid treatment, which confirms the etching of alumina. Acid etching enlarges the inner diameter of HNTs from 12.9 nm to 17.9 nm while the original nanotube-like morphology is still maintained (Fig. S1). As a result, the slight increase in the lumen facilitates the introduction of metal precursors. Moreover, the inner surface of HNTs is hydroxylated after acid-etching (Fig. S2a), which is favorable for the adsorption of metal precursors. The chemical environments of Si and Al in HNTs and A-H were studied by solid-state NMR spectra (Fig. S2b, c), and no significant change has been observed due to the slight etching. The specific surface area (SSA) and pore volume of the support show an increase after acid treatment (Table S2 and Fig. S3), indicating the enlarged diameter of HNTs. After the introduction of metals, the SSA of all catalysts decreases, and the NiMo/A-H catalyst owns the smallest SSA which might be ascribed to the occupation of metal NPs in the lumen.

The location of metal particles can be seen from the SEM diagram (Fig. S4). When compared to Ni/H catalyst, of which most nanoparticles are dispersed on the HNT surface, Ni/A-H and NiMo/A-H have few particles visible on their outer surface. Particularly, the metal particles inside the lumen are observed in Ni/A-H and NiMo/A-H (Fig. S5). Furthermore, as displayed in transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images, Ni NPs with average size of 19.7 nm is distributed outside the original HNTs, while Ni NPs with mean size of 14.7 nm have been distributed inside A-H (Fig. S6). It demonstrates that acid treatment plays a crucial role in endowing the metal NPs to locate into the inner of

nanotubes. Meanwhile, the size of the Ni NPs loaded inside the inner of HNT is controlled, confirming the importance of the confined structure. In addition, the introduction of Mo can lead to a reduction in particle size as alloys are formed (Fig. S6c), resulting in an average size of 10.1 nm. The entry of particles into the lumen of HNTs has been confirmed based on HRTEM images (Fig. 2). The lattice fringes spacing is observed at 0.205 nm, corresponding to the (111) crystal plane of Ni<sup>0</sup> (Fig. 2b). The energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) analyses were used to confirm the distribution of elements in the catalysts (Fig. 2c-i), proving that the elements Ni and Mo are preferably distributed in the tube. Furthermore, the HRTEM images of the sample show lattice fringe with a lattice distance of 0.199 nm, which corresponds to the (220) plane of Ni<sub>4</sub>Mo (Fig. S7), confirming the formation of the alloy. Noticeably, line scanning profiles further confirm that Ni and Mo coexisted in the nanoparticles in a ratio of nearly 4:1. The results of argon-ion etched XPS (Fig. S8) show that the signal intensity of Ni<sup>0</sup> increases with the increase of etching time, which also supports the confined structure. The above results indicate that acid treatment promotes the entry of metal particles into the lumen of HNTs, and alloying further reduces the metal particle size.

X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis of reduced catalysts was performed to characterize the crystalline structure of catalysts, as depicted in Fig. 3. The raw HNTs show typical peaks for HNTs species (20.1°, 24.7°, 35.0°,  $38.4^{\circ}$ ,  $54.6^{\circ}$  and  $62.5^{\circ}$ ), indexed to JCPDS#29–1487 (Al<sub>2</sub>Si<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>(OH)<sub>4</sub>). In addition, it contains some impurity peaks of quartz (22.0°, 26.6°). As observed, chemically-etched HNTs exhibit XRD patterns comparable to untreated HNTs, indicating the preservation of the crystal structure after undergoing acid treatments [40]. After the thermal treatment, the reflections of HNTs are obviously weakened due to dehydroxylation and the formation of amorphous metahalloysite [34]. The Ni/H catalyst shows intense peaks at 44.5°, 51.8°, and 76.4°, which can be assigned to (111), (200), and (220) planes of Ni<sup>0</sup>, respectively. For NiMo/A-H catalyst, no characteristic diffraction peak of Mo species is observed because of its low content. Meanwhile, local magnification of the XRD pattern shows that the Ni (111) peak shifts to a lower angle, which may be due to the slight expansion of the Ni lattice caused by the entry of Mo, indicating the formation of NiMo alloy [35].

The catalyst reducibility and metal-support interaction were evaluated by temperature-programmed reduction in hydrogen (H<sub>2</sub>-TPR), as shown in Fig. 4a. Typically, the high reduction peak temperature corresponds to the strong interaction between metal and support [46]. For Ni/H and Ni/A-H catalysts, the reduction peaks at low temperatures are attributed to the reduction of bulk NiO<sub>x</sub> species located on the sample surface. This part of the NiO<sub>x</sub> species has a large particle size and weak interaction with the support, so it is easy to be reduced. The peaks of 408 °C and 430 °C can be attributed to the reduction of NiO<sub>x</sub> in the HNTs lumen or with relatively small particle size, indicating a stronger interaction with support. Additionally, the peak reduction temperature of Ni/A-H is higher than that of Ni/H, which indicates that acid treatment can enhance the interaction between metal and support. As for the

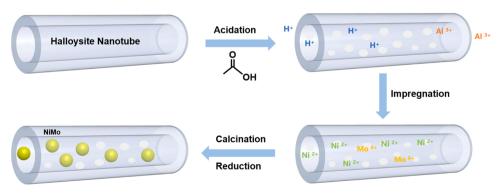


Fig. 1. Schematic illustration of the preparation of NiMo/A-H catalyst.

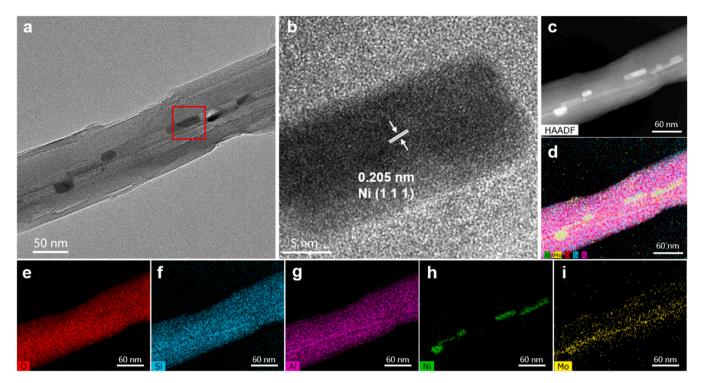


Fig. 2. (a) (b) HRTEM images, (c) HAADF-STEM image, (d-i) elemental mapping of NiMo/A-H catalyst.

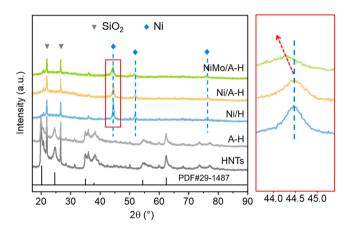


Fig. 3. XRD patterns of reduced catalysts.

NiMo/A-H catalyst, the peaks at lower temperatures can also be assigned to the reduction of larger NiO particles on the surface. The peaks of NiMo/A-H catalysts at 451 °C and 496 °C can be attributed to the reduction of NiO and MoO<sub>x</sub>, further demonstrating the formation of NiMo alloys during reduction. It is obvious that all reduction peaks of the NiMo/A-H catalyst shift to higher temperatures, which indicates that NiO is more difficult to be reduced due to the stronger metal-support interaction of the catalyst. Moreover, the addition of Mo species increases  $\rm H_2$  consumption (Table 1), which means that MoO<sub>x</sub> can also be reduced by H<sub>2</sub> to produce NiMo alloys. The results of H<sub>2</sub>-TPR show that acid-treated support and the introduction of Mo species can enhance the metal-support interaction.

Surface electronic states of Ni for reduced catalysts were explored by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). As is shown in Fig. 4b, the peak in the spectrum at 852.4–852.9 eV is attributed to metallic Ni<sup>0</sup> [47]. Peaks appearing at 854 eV and 857 eV are assigned to Ni<sup>2+</sup> species in NiO and Ni(OH)<sub>2</sub>, respectively [48]. Compared to the Ni/H catalyst, the Ni<sup>0</sup> peak in Ni/A-H shifts to high binding energy, indicating that an

electronic interaction exists between the Ni and acid-treated support. Thus, the interaction between the metal and the support can be enhanced, which is in conformity to H<sub>2</sub>-TPR results. Importantly, the peak of Ni<sup>0</sup> in NiMo/A-H migrates towards the higher binding energy region, which indicates that a stronger charge transfer happens between Mo and Ni. Furthermore, 41.9% of Ni<sup>0</sup> exists in NiMo/A-H, which is significantly higher than that in Ni/H and Ni/A-H catalysts, indicating that the introduction of Mo is beneficial to restrain the oxidation of Ni. Thus, the NiMo/A-H catalyst can possess more active sites to achieve superior catalytic performance. Additionally, the binding energy of Al 2p and Si 2p of catalysts (Fig. S9) does not change significantly, indicating that the chemical environment of Al and Si remains constant after acid-etching and Mo incorporation.

#### 3.2. Surface properties of catalysts

To get insight into the ability of catalysts for the CH<sub>4</sub> activation, a temperature-programmed surface reaction (CH<sub>4</sub>-TPSR) was performed, and the tail gas was linked to online mass spectrometry (MS) to monitor the desorption products. As shown in Fig. 5, all catalysts have peaks of CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O between 300 and 400 °C and then quickly reach the maximum. The emergence of H<sub>2</sub>O, CO, and CO<sub>2</sub> in the off-gas indicates the presence of residual O species (Oads) on the surface of Ni NPs, which facilitates the decomposition of the CH4, but these O species are rapidly consumed. The H2 signal in the mass spectrum comes from the cleavage of CH<sub>4</sub> and is synchronized with the TCD signal. The initial temperatures of CH<sub>4</sub>-consumption and H<sub>2</sub>-generation peak for Ni/A-H (422 °C) and NiMo/A-H (415 °C) start at a lower temperature, as compared to 465 °C for Ni/H, whereas the peak positions of three catalysts are located at approximately 670 °C. The lower CH<sub>4</sub> pyrolysis temperature, larger CH<sub>4</sub> consumption and H2 production of the NiMo/A-H catalyst indicate that it has a stronger activation ability for CH<sub>4</sub>.

The adsorption and activation capability of catalysts for  $CO_2$  was further investigated by temperature-programmed desorption of  $CO_2$  coupling mass spectrum ( $CO_2$ -TPD-MS), as shown in Fig. S10. Compared to the Ni/H catalyst, Ni/A-H exhibits stronger adsorption of  $CO_2$  with a large desorption peak. Meanwhile, obvious CO signals appear over Ni/

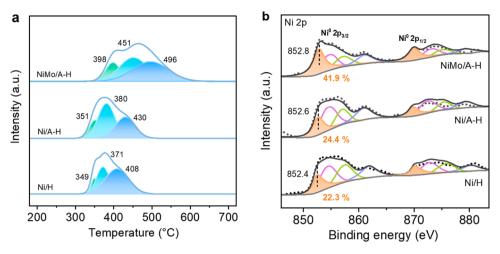


Fig. 4. (a) H<sub>2</sub>-TPR profiles and (b) Ni 2p XPS spectra of reduced catalysts.

**Table 1** Properties of various catalysts.

Catalyst	ICP-OES [%]		Metal dispersion <sup>a</sup>	H <sub>2</sub> consumption	Particle size <sup>b</sup> [nm]		TOF <sup>c</sup> [s <sup>-1</sup> ]		I <sub>D</sub> /I <sub>G</sub> spent
	Ni/H	6.1	-	12.1	0.58	19.7	23.6	0.73	0.77
Ni/A-H	6.0	-	13.8	0.59	14.7	22.1	0.84	0.86	0.64
NiMo/A-H	5.8	1.9	14.3	1.01	10.1	13.2	2.20	2.63	0.70

- $^{\rm a}\,$  Ni dispersion was measured by CO pulse chemisorption.
- <sup>b</sup> Calculated based on TEM images.
- <sup>c</sup> Reaction condition: 50 mg catalyst, 700 °C,  $CH_4/CO_2 = 1/1$ , and GHSV 300,000 mL·g<sup>-1</sup>·h<sup>-1</sup>.

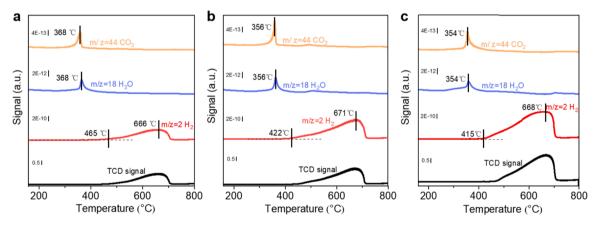


Fig. 5. CH<sub>4</sub>-TPSR-MS of (a) Ni/H, (b) Ni/A-H, (c) NiMo/A-H catalysts.

A-H and NiMo/A-H catalysts, while it is relatively weak over Ni/H.  $\rm CO_2$  is typically activated on metallic Ni to produce  $\rm CO$  [49]. A strong CO signal peak indicates that the chemisorption of  $\rm CO_2$  is more easily activated into CO on Ni/A-H and NiMo/A-H catalysts than on Ni/H catalysts. However, the  $\rm CO_2$  desorption peak of NiMo/A-H is weak, which may be due to the addition of Mo reducing the catalyst basicity [50]. In addition, the MS curves of Ni/A-H and NiMo/A-H show a strong H<sub>2</sub>O signal, indicating that there are more hydroxyl species on the surface of catalysts, according with the Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FT-IR) of acid-treated support.

#### 3.3. Catalytic performance

The catalytic activity of DRM reaction over reduced catalysts was evaluated. As depicted in Fig. 6a, b, the conversion of  $CH_4$  and  $CO_2$  over

catalysts increase along with the reaction temperature. At various reaction temperatures ranging from 600 °C to 800 °C, NiMo/A-H and Ni/A-H exhibit remarkable levels of activity, with NiMo/A-H displaying the highest activity. Comparatively, Ni/H demonstrates lower catalytic activity. Furthermore, the TOF $_{\rm CH4}$  and TOF $_{\rm CO2}$  of NiMo/A-H are 2.20 s $^{-1}$  and 2.63 s $^{-1}$  at 700 °C, respectively, which is the highest among these three catalysts (Table 1). Meanwhile, the CO $_{\rm 2}$  conversion of the NiMo/A-H catalyst is higher than that of CH $_{\rm 4}$  conversion, which may be caused by the reverse water-gas shift reaction (RWGS) [51].

Fig. 6c, d show the conversion of  $CH_4$  and  $CO_2$  over catalysts at 800 °C for 50 h. For both Ni/H and Ni/A-H, the initial conversion decreases rapidly. Over time, the activity of Ni/H stabilizes, while Ni/A-H experiences a slow decrease. This could be due to the presence of large Ni particles in the Ni/A-H catalyst tube, which block the lumen. In contrast, the NiMo/A-H catalyst displays exceptional catalytic activity.

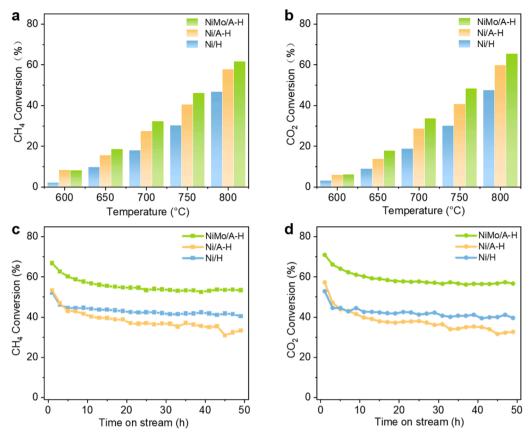


Fig. 6. (a)  $CH_4$  and (b)  $CO_2$  conversion of catalysts as a function of reaction temperature; (c)  $CH_4$  and (d)  $CO_2$  conversion of catalysts as a function of time on stream. Conditions: T = 800 °C,  $CH_4/CO_2 = 1/1$ , GHSV of 70,000 mL·g<sup>-1</sup>·h<sup>-1</sup>.

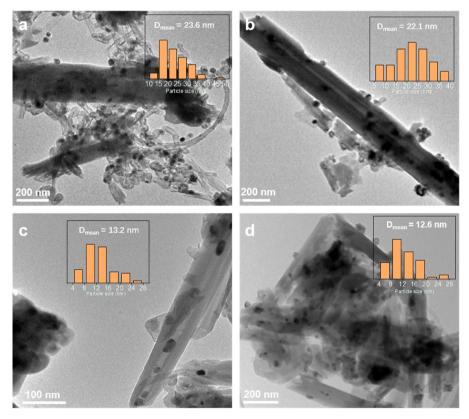


Fig. 7. TEM images of (a) Ni/H, (b) Ni/A-H, (c) NiMo/A-H spent catalysts after 50 h DRM reaction and (d) NiMo/A-H spent catalyst after 100 h DRM reaction.

The conversion of CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> over the NiMo/A-H catalyst decreases slowly at the initial stage of the reaction and stabilizes after 8 h, which is significantly higher than the previous two catalysts. In addition, to evaluate the performance of the NiMo/A-H catalyst better, its activity was tested for a longer time. The result (Fig. S11) shows that even after 100 h DRM reaction, the NiMo/A-H still maintains high and stable activity. Furthermore, the H<sub>2</sub>/CO ratio (Fig. S12) can quantify the extent of side reactions and demonstrate the catalytic selectivity. For Ni/H and Ni/A-H catalysts, the product H<sub>2</sub>/CO ratio is slightly higher than 1, which may be caused by the decomposition of CH<sub>4</sub> and the Boudouard reaction, corresponding to more carbon deposition [52]. While, the ratio of H<sub>2</sub>/CO of NiMo/A-H is approximately equal to 1, which further proves that the NiMo/A-H catalyst is less affected by side reactions. The stability test results show that the addition of Mo to Ni-based catalysts can slightly improve the stability and maintain the high activity of the catalysts in DRM reaction.

#### 3.4. Characterization of spent catalysts

TEM micrographs of spent catalysts after the stability test at 800 °C show the sintering and carbon deposition of active components (Fig. 7). After 50 h of DRM reaction, serious metal sintering happened to the Ni/H catalyst, and the average Ni particle size was increased to 23.6 nm (Fig. 7a). Simultaneously, due to the relatively low Tammann temperature of Ni (590 °C), the Ni NPs would migrate out from the HNTs during the reaction at 800 °C in Ni/A-H catalysts. Consequently, the larger particle size of Ni is also observed in spent Ni/A-H catalysts (Fig. 7b). The average size of Ni particles of spent NiMo/A-H is about 13 nm (Fig. 7c,) which is much smaller than that of other two spent catalysts, even after 100 h reaction (Fig. 7d). The high resistance to metal sintering is primarily due to the alloying with metals that have a high melting point, as well as the steric confinement effects. In addition,

filamentous carbon mainly grows on the surface of Ni scattered outside the HNTs. No carbon deposition is observed around the Ni particles in the lumen (Fig. S13) because the small space in the tube limits the growth of carbon. In the NiMo/A-H catalyst, the inclusion of Mo leads to a significant reduction in the quantity of carbon nanotubes. Additionally, it helps to preserve the high dispersion of Ni NPs and restricts the growth of metallic Ni grain size. According to XRD measurements (Fig. S14), spent Ni/H and Ni/A-H show more significant metal sintering. The diffraction peaks of Ni $^{0}$  in the NiMo/A-H catalyst move towards the low-angle region, indicating that Ni-Mo alloys remain intact even after long-term performance tests.

Raman spectra were performed to further investigate the properties of the carbon deposition on the spent catalysts (Fig. 8a). Two peaks were detected at approximately 1350 cm<sup>-1</sup> (D-band) and 1600 cm<sup>-1</sup> (Gband), which correspond to amorphous carbon and graphitic carbon. respectively [53]. The peak intensity of the D and G bands of Ni/H is the strongest, indicating that more carbon deposits are generated during the reaction, while the Ni/A-H and NiMo/A-H catalysts are less prone to coking when used extensively. The intensity ratio of the D and G bands (I<sub>D</sub>/I<sub>G</sub>) is calculated to track the graphitic degree of the deposited carbon, and the results are as follows: NiMo/A-H ( $I_D/I_C = 0.70$ ) > Ni/A-H  $(I_D/I_G = 0.64) > Ni/H (I_D/I_G = 0.57)$  (Table 1). The evidence suggests that the carbon deposited on the Ni/H catalyst has a more stable structure, making it less prone to gasification. In contrast, cokes on NiMo/A-H are less graphitized and more easily to eliminate. Thermal gravimetric (TG) analysis was performed to measure the amount of carbon deposition on the surface of spent catalysts. As depicted in Fig. 8b, the weight loss of Ni/H after 50 h reaction is about 7.8 wt%, while that of Ni/A-H is 4.1 wt%. This is because some Ni particles enter the HNTs, thus generating a steric hindrance effect and inhibiting the formation of filamentous carbon. While only 2.1 wt% carbon species are formed on NiMo/A-H, and the weight loss of NiMo/A-H increases by

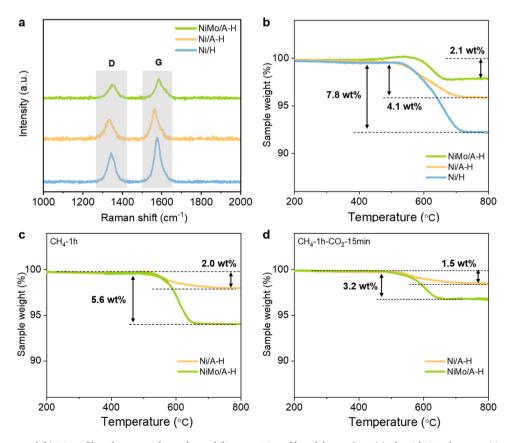


Fig. 8. (a) Raman spectra and (b) TG profiles of spent catalysts after stability test; TG profiles of the catalysts (c) after 1 h CH<sub>4</sub> decomposition reaction, and (d) after 1 h CH<sub>4</sub> decomposition reaction and 15 min flowing of CO<sub>2</sub>.

only 0.6 wt% (Fig. S15) even after 100 h reaction, indicating the better coking resistance. Mo species have been shown to improve the carbon resistance of Ni-based catalysts in DRM [35,36]. Furthermore, the nucleation and growth of coke can be inhibited by forming smaller Ni particle [16]. The particle size of Ni-Mo alloy is significantly smaller than that of Ni particles, as has been demonstrated previously. TG results further prove that the smaller metal particles and steric hindrance effect can enhance the coking resistance of NiMo/A-H, according with the TEM results.

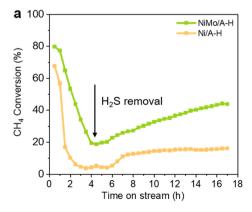
Some studies have shown that the presence of Mo species can enhance the catalysts' carbon resistance in DRM. Mo doping lowers the activation energy of CH4\* dissociation while increasing the activation energy of CH\* complete decomposition. Additionally, Mo possesses a strong attraction to O\*, and Mo doping significantly boosts the adsorption of O\* on the catalyst surface, facilitating the oxidation removal of carbon deposition [35,54,55]. To explore the carbon resistance mechanism of Mo in this study, CH4 cracking experiments were carried out on the catalysts, and the carbon deposition was observed by TG. As shown in Fig. 8c, carbon deposition of Ni/A-H and NiMo/A-H catalysts are 2.0 and 5.6 wt% respectively after one hour of CH<sub>4</sub> decomposition. The NiMo/A-H catalyst produces more carbon deposition, indicating its strong ability to activate CH4 which is consistent with results of CH<sub>4</sub>-TPSR above. In addition, most of the carbon species produced by NiMo/A-H catalyst is amorphous carbon which can be easily eliminated, while most of the carbon produced by Ni/A-H catalyst is graphite carbon (Fig. S16). After one hour of CH<sub>4</sub> reaction, CH<sub>4</sub> was cut off and CO<sub>2</sub> was injected for 15 min to observe the elimination of carbon deposits. The amount of carbon deposited on the Ni catalyst is reduced to 1.5 wt%, whereas on the NiMo/A-H catalyst it is reduced to 3.2 wt% (Fig. 8d). This suggests that NiMo/A-H catalysts have a higher rate of removing C\*, which could be attributed to their abundance of adsorbed oxygen (Fig. S17). Hence, it is reasonable to propose that the reduced carbon deposition on spent NiMo/A-H catalysts after DRM reaction is due to a balance between carbon formation and removal. In addition, a decrease in the initial activity of the catalysts in the stability test can been observed in Fig. 6. In order to explore the reason for the deactivation, the activity test of the catalysts with short time (8 h) was carried out. As shown in Fig. S18, compared with Ni/H and Ni/A-H, the activity of NiMo/A-H decreases at a slower rate with a higher conversion, which is consistent with the stability test for 50 h. According to Fig. S18c and Table S3, the inactivation of Ni/H and Ni/A-H catalysts is due to the dual action of carbon deposition and sintering, while the deactivation of NiMo/A-H is only affected by carbon deposition. At the initial stage of the reaction, NiMo/A-H produces most carbon deposition, leading to a decline in activity. Subsequently, a balance is reached between carbon formation and removal, and the conversion tends to stabilize.

#### 3.5. Evaluation of catalyst tolerance to H<sub>2</sub>S poisoning

The study of catalyst performance in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>S involved the monitoring of catalyst deactivation under the exposure of 3.2 ppm H<sub>2</sub>S, as well as the observation of activity recovery after H<sub>2</sub>S was removed from the feed in real-time (Fig. 9). Experiments were initially performed without H2S gas, and H2S was introduced after 30 min. As can be seen, both catalysts display obvious deactivation after the introduction of H2S. For Ni/A-H, the activity decreases rapidly, with CH<sub>4</sub> conversion dropping by 46% within one hour and almost completely deactivated after two hours exposure to H2S (Fig. 9a). This rapid deactivation in the presence of H2S is due to the strong chemisorption of sulfur on the Ni sites [56]. In contrast, the NiMo/A-H catalyst experiences a gradual and consistent decrease in activity with CH<sub>4</sub> conversion dropping by 24% within one hour. Despite being exposed to H<sub>2</sub>S for a duration of 3 h, it still manages to maintain 19% of CH<sub>4</sub> conversion. The experimental results show that the stability of the catalyst is improved due to the introduction of Mo in the process of DRM with H<sub>2</sub>S. The better H<sub>2</sub>S resistance of the NiMo/A-H catalyst is attributed to the competitive adsorption of H<sub>2</sub>S by Mo species, which slows down the sulfide rate of Ni. After feeding for 3 h, H<sub>2</sub>S was stopped, and the reaction continued for 13 h without H<sub>2</sub>S to explore the recovery of catalyst activity. It has been observed that the Ni/A-H catalyst exhibits a slight reactivation of catalytic activity (approximately 12%) after the cessation of H2S. The high temperature of 800 °C results in a slight recovery of catalytic activity, possibly due to the desorption and oxidation of fractional sulfur adsorbed on the Ni surface [57]. However, the NiMo/A-H catalyst demonstrates a more significant recovery, with almost twice the level of activity compared to the former. Based on the results, it is found that the regeneration of NiMo/A-H is improved after discontinuing the H<sub>2</sub>S feed as compared to the Ni catalyst. The cause of this positive occurrence is unclear, although it is believed that sulfur species tend to adhere to Mo, which quickens the release of adsorbed sulfur on the Ni surface at high temperatures. This, in turn, exposes the active site again and aids in restoring activity. Consequently, it can be seen from the above results that the addition of Mo species undoubtedly contributes to stabilizing Ni-based catalysts in the DRM process with the presence of H2S. In addition, the H2S resistance of catalysts with different Ni/Mo ratios was also simply studied. As shown in Fig. S19, for catalysts with Ni/Mo ratios of 5:1, 4:1, and 3:1, the resistance to H2S enhances slightly with the increase of Mo content. However, NiMo/A-H with a Ni/Mo ratio of 4:1 has relatively better comprehensive catalytic performance in DRM. In terms of sulfur resistance alone, the optimal Ni-Mo ratio of the catalyst still needs to be further studied.

#### 3.6. Characterization of deactivated catalysts in the presence of $H_2S$

XRD pattern of deactivated catalysts (Fig. S14) does not show an obvious diffraction peak of nickel or molybdenum sulfide, which may be



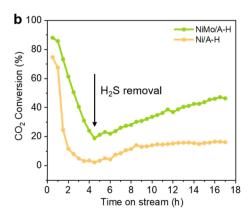


Fig. 9. (a) CH<sub>4</sub> and (b) CO<sub>2</sub> conversion of catalysts in DRM in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>S. Conditions: Temperature = 800 °C, GHSV of 62,000 mL·g<sup>-1</sup>·h<sup>-1</sup>, H<sub>2</sub>S = 3.2 ppm.

due to the poor crystallinity or small quantity [24]. Furthermore, the Ni<sup>0</sup> peaks of Ni/A-H and NiMo/A-H catalysts almost disappear, and the diffraction peak ascribed to the NiO crystal emerges instead, indicating that Ni<sup>0</sup> particles are easier to be oxidized in the H<sub>2</sub>S-containing reaction, which is consistent with the literature reports [58]. Moreover, thermodynamic analysis shows that sulfides, especially nickel sulfides, are difficult to form when H<sub>2</sub>S concentration is low [59]. There is also no obvious sulfide peak in the XRD pattern of sulfurized catalysts with different treatment time (Fig. S20), which proves that the sulfides are poor crystalline. The chemical states and electronic effects of Ni/A-H and NiMo/A-H catalysts during H2S poisoning reaction were characterized by XPS (Fig. S21). It can be seen from the Ni 2p XPS spectrum that the Ni<sup>0</sup> peak area of sulfur poisoning catalysts decreases significantly, indicating that Ni<sup>0</sup> cannot be maintained well in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>S. Meanwhile, the proportion of Ni<sup>2+</sup> increases, implying that sulfur poisoning has an oxidative effect on the Ni catalyst, which is consistent with XRD results. However, the proportion of Ni<sup>0</sup> on NiMo/A-H (11.9%) after sulfur poisoning is significantly higher than that on Ni/A-H catalyst (4.5%), indicating the improved sulfur resistance of Mo-modified catalysts. Additionally, the valence state of Mo species in the poisoned catalyst increases overall, which may be due to the formation of high valence sulfide. These results indicate that Mo can adsorb H2S and alleviate the poisoning of Ni<sup>0</sup> sites.

Surface Raman spectroscopy was further conducted to explore the changes of the surface composition of catalysts after the reaction with H<sub>2</sub>S. In Fig. 10, it is evident that the spent Ni/A-H only has G and D band corresponding to carbon and no presence of sulfide, while the NiMo/A-H catalyst displays sulfide peaks. The peaks of NiMo/A-H at about 375 and 404 cm<sup>-1</sup> belong to  $E_2^1$  g and  $A_1$  g of MoS<sub>2</sub>, and the three distinct peaks in the 800–1000 cm<sup>-1</sup> range can be ascribed to the molecular structure of Mo<sub>3</sub>S<sub>13</sub> [60–62]. Moreover, the appearance of a small peak at 476 cm<sup>-1</sup> can be attributed to the  $A_g$  phonon of NiS<sub>2</sub> [62,63]. This suggests that Mo species can compete to adsorb H<sub>2</sub>S and generate sulfide authentically. The peak of MoS<sub>x</sub> is much stronger than that of NiS<sub>x</sub>, indicating that H<sub>2</sub>S tends to adsorb on Mo, thus slowing down the sulphuration rate of the active Ni sites and improving the sulfur tolerance [27]. Meanwhile, D

and G peaks attributed to the carbon deposition of NiMo/A-H are small and almost negligible. Based on our observations, we believe that the absence of sulfide peaks in the Raman spectra of Ni/A-H may be due to the accumulated carbon, which covers the surface of the catalyst and makes it difficult to detect any signals of sulfide. Consequently, to eliminate the influence of carbon deposition on detection, we prepared samples that were sulfureted in  $H_2S/N_2$  flow with different treatment time (1, 3, 5 h). As shown in Fig. 10b, the sulfide peak is observed near 476 cm<sup>-1</sup> on the Ni/A-H catalyst and increases with time. For the NiMo/A-H catalyst, the signal of molybdenum sulfide is still observed. The longer the sulfide time, the stronger the signal. All the above results show that the active metal nickel is deactivated by forming sulfide in the  $H_2S$  atmosphere, and Mo species can competitively adsorb  $H_2S$  to form sulfide, thus improving the sulfur resistance of catalysts.

Theoretical calculations based on density functional theory (DFT) were conducted to investigate the adsorption of  $\rm H_2S$  on Ni and NiMo surfaces (Fig. 10c). The calculated adsorption energies are - 0.97, - 0.94, and - 1.18 eV for  $\rm H_2S$  adsorption on the Ni of Ni (111) surface, Ni site on NiMo (111), and Mo site on NiMo (111), respectively. It has been observed that the adsorption of  $\rm H_2S$  on the Ni site of NiMo (111) is comparatively weaker than on the Ni site of Ni (111). Moreover, the adsorption energy is the highest at the Mo site. These simulation results suggest that  $\rm H_2S$  tends to be adsorbed on the Mo site in NiMo alloy, indicating that Mo can play a competitive role in the adsorption of  $\rm H_2S$  to improve the sulfur resistance of the catalyst, which is in line with the experimental results.

TG analysis of spent catalysts was performed to further investigate the effect of  $H_2S$  atmosphere on the carbon deposition of the catalyst (Fig. S22). The weight loss of the NiMo/A-H catalyst is only 1.3%, while that of the Ni/A-H catalyst is 5.5%. This indicates that the NiMo/A-H catalyst still has a good coking resistance. In other words, Mo species still play an important role in carbon deposition resistance in presence of  $H_2S$ .

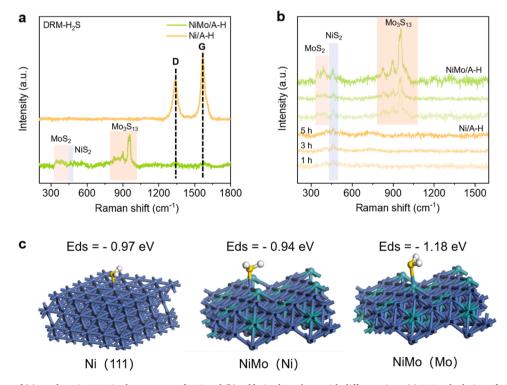


Fig. 10. Raman spectra of (a) catalysts in DRM in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>S and (b) sulfurized catalysts with different time; (c) DFT calculation of H<sub>2</sub>S adsorption (Ni: blue, Mo: green, S: yellow, H: white).

#### 3.7. In situ study on DRM reaction in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>S

The dynamic changes in the structure of Ni/A-H and NiMo/A-H catalysts under the DRM reaction with H2S were evaluated by in situ Raman spectroscopy in different reaction atmospheres (Fig. 11). In Fig. 11a, c, the in situ Raman spectra are displayed for both catalysts under a flow of CH<sub>4</sub>/CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> (10/10/10 mL/min) for 30 min, followed by a change to  $CH_4/CO_2/H_2S$  (10/10/10 mL/min) for 90 min at 800 °C. The reaction flow is reversed in Fig. 11b, d. As shown in Fig. 11, the G band strength of Ni/A-H is much stronger than that of NiMo/A-H in the whole reaction process, which is consistent with TG results. It is noticeable that Ni/A-H exhibits a clear G band derived from deposited carbon in just 5 min while in a CH<sub>4</sub>/CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> atmosphere (Fig. 11a). H<sub>2</sub>S is introduced after a reaction of 30 min. Still, the intensity of the G peak of the catalyst does not change significantly, which shows that the introduction of H<sub>2</sub>S has no significant effect on the carbon deposition produced by the catalyst. When H<sub>2</sub>S gas is first introduced, the carbon peak may not be immediately visible. It typically takes around 10 min for the peak to become noticeable, but it becomes more prominent as time goes on (Fig. 11b). The intensity of the G-band after 30 min of reaction is lower than that shown in Fig. 11a, which indicates that H<sub>2</sub>S influences the speed of carbon deposition. Furthermore, it is noteworthy that Fig. 11a does not display any notable sulfide peak. However, upon the initial introduction of H<sub>2</sub>S, a faint NiS<sub>2</sub> peak at 480 cm<sup>-1</sup> is observed in Fig. 11b. Based on the findings, it appears that the presence of H<sub>2</sub>S in the atmosphere reduces the rate of carbon deposition on catalysts. However, this also results in the poisoning of Ni and the production of sulfide. As for the NiMo/A-H catalyst, the tendency of carbon deposition under different atmospheres is similar to that of Ni/A-H. Exposure to pure DRM gas results in rapid carbon deposition, whereas the G bond appears slowly under H<sub>2</sub>S poisoning. However, no sulfide is found on the NiMo/A-H catalyst in both cases, which may account for the low sulfide content under high-temperature elimination. Based on the results above, it appears that  $\rm H_2S$  influences the speed of carbon deposition, but has little effect on the amount of carbon deposition.

To acquire more reliable information during in situ reaction condition, we conducted Micro-Raman mapping at a constant 1580 cm<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. S23, Fig. 12). Fig. S23a.1 is the appearance of the selected catalyst region and a.2-a.10 corresponds to the G-band intensity at each time in Fig. 11a. The intensity scale ranges from 20 to 50 for Ni/A-H, while the range of NiMo/A-H is 10-20. Compared with Fig. S23a, the G-band intensity of b.2-b.6 in Fig. S23b is much weaker affected by H2S, corresponding to Fig. 11b. In addition, the intensity is little difference between Fig. S23a.10 and Fig. S23b.10, indicating that although Ni is poisoned by H2S, Ni/A-H catalyst still maintains a certain balance between carbon formation and removal. Meanwhile, some interesting phenomena have been observed in the Micro-Raman mapping of NiMo/ A-H (Fig. 12). Compared with Fig. 12a, the G-band intensity of NiMo/A-H in the CH<sub>4</sub>/CO<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub>S atmosphere (Fig. 12b) is weaker in the first 15 min. However, after 30 min of reaction, the G-band intensity increases significantly and is stronger than that of the former (Fig. 12b.6b.10). This is different from the Ni/A-H catalyst, which might derive from the effect of Mo species. At the initial stage of the reaction, due to sulfur poisoning, the catalyst deposits less carbon. Still, as Mo gradually plays a competitive role in the adsorption of H2S, Ni is less affected by H<sub>2</sub>S and instead promotes the formation of carbon deposition. Hence, the intensity of the G band of the NiMo/A-H catalyst exposed to H<sub>2</sub>S first changes uniquely from weak to strong. However, in general, the carbon deposition on NiMo/A-H is much less than that on Ni/A-H. This phenomenon suggests that Mo species still play a role in inhibiting carbon deposition, even in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>S. The average intensity of G-band obtained in microscale are plots versus the reaction time in order to acquire the quantitative dynamics of carbon deposition (Fig. 12c, d). The introduction of H2S would slow down the carbon deposition rate of

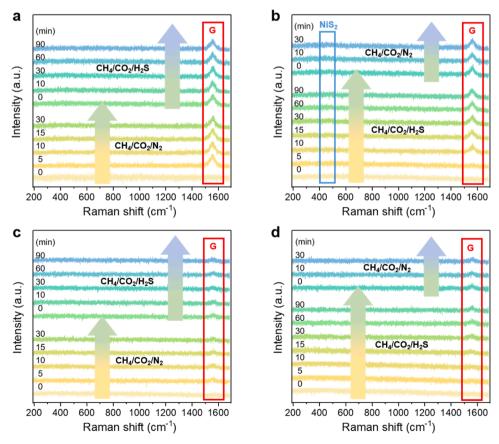


Fig. 11. In situ Raman spectra of (a, b) Ni/A-H and (c, d) NiMo/A-H catalysts in DRM in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>S with different flow conditions.

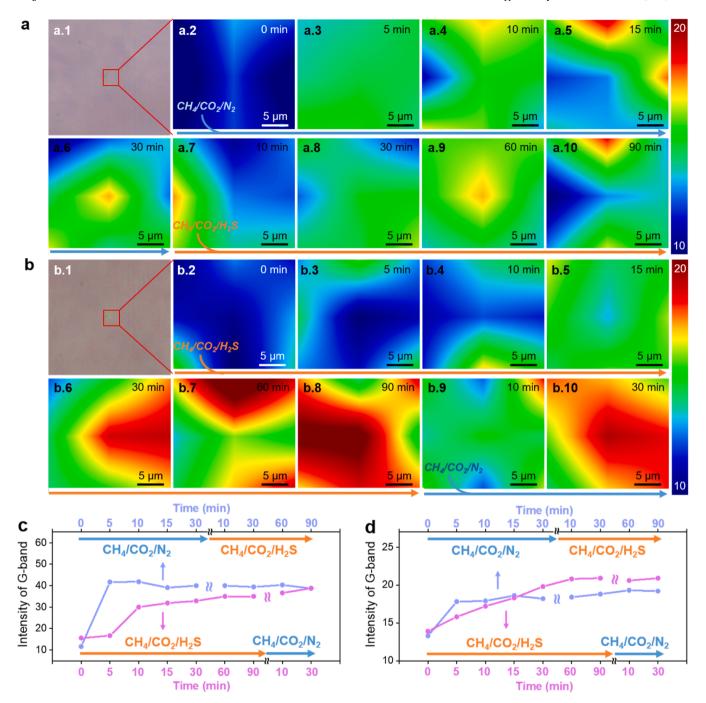


Fig. 12. Micro-Raman mapping of NiMo/A-H catalyst in DRM in the presence of  $H_2S$  with different flow conditions of (a)  $CH_4/CO_2/N_2$  for 30 min -  $CH_4/CO_2/H_2S$  for 90 min, (b)  $CH_4/CO_2/H_2S$  for 90 min -  $CH_4/CO_2/N_2$  for 30 min; The average intensity of G-band are plots versus the reaction time of (c) Ni/A-H, (d) NiMo/A-H catalysts.

Ni/A-H catalysts due to the decrease activation of CH<sub>4</sub>. However, the carbon accumulation in Ni/A-H catalysts still existed. For NiMo/A-H catalysts, although, the carbon deposition rate decreases due to the poison effect of  $H_2S$ , the intensity of G-band in presence of  $H_2S$  outdoes the counterparts in absence of  $H_2S$  slightly. It further confirms the critical role of Mo on the carbon resistance.

To explore the adsorption and desorption of  $H_2S$  over Ni/A-H and NiMo/A-H catalysts, we designed the gas-flowing and static state surface reaction-mass spectra (GFSS-SR-MS) experiments (Fig. S24). The difference of the reaction gas signal and product signal between the two catalysts proves that the competitive adsorption of Mo on  $H_2S$  can slow down the Ni poisoning rate, which is consistent with the activity data.

The sulfur signal detected in the tail gas of NiMo/A-H is slightly stronger than that of Ni/A-H, indicating that sulfur species adsorbed on the NiMo/A-H catalyst are more likely to be desorbed. It may be due to the weak adsorption energy of  $\rm H_2S$  at the Ni site on the NiMo/A-H catalyst, which corresponds to the recovery of activity after cutting off  $\rm H_2S$ .

The schematic diagram of catalysts under different atmosphere is shown in Fig. 13. In the case of Ni/A-H, exposure to  $\text{CH}_4/\text{CO}_2$  first leads to the preferential production of severe carbon deposition. This carbon accumulation hinders the interaction between  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  and Ni, leading to undetectable sulfide species. Even though initial exposure to  $\text{CH}_4/\text{CO}_2/\text{H}_2\text{S}$  slows down the rate of carbon deposition in Ni/A-H catalysts, carbon accumulation still occurs on  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ -poisoned catalysts. This suggests

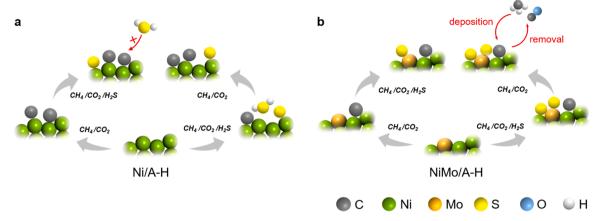


Fig. 13. Schematic illustration of reaction mechanism over (a) Ni/A-H and (b) NiMo/A-H.

that the decrease in carbon deposition rate may result from the loss of active sites, but coking still occurs due to the unchanged chemical environment. On the other hand, for NiMo/A-H catalysts, carbon deposition is inhibited under  $CH_4/CO_2$  atmosphere. When  $H_2S$  is introduced, sulfides are formed. When NiMo/A-H catalysts are first treated with  $CH_4/CO_2/H_2S$ , the rate of carbon deposition also decreases. But as the reaction progresses, coking in Mo-promoted catalysts increases slightly in presence of  $H_2S$ , further confirming the critical role of Mo in coking resistance. Although  $H_2S$  adsorbed on Mo may hinder its role, the balance between carbon formation and removal remains.

#### 4. Conclusion

In summary, the Mo modified Ni catalysts were successful confined into halloysite nanotubes by enlarging the diameter of the lumen via selective etching by acid. The steric confinement effect limits the formation of filamentous carbon and the addition of high melting point Mo restricts the sintering of particles during the reaction. In addition, the incorporation of Mo can reduce the crystallinity of carbon deposit which is facilitative for the carbon removal. In the process of DRM, Ni-based catalysts face deactivation due to both carbon deposition and H2S poisoning. However, the competitive adsorption of H<sub>2</sub>S on Mo can help alleviate H<sub>2</sub>S poisoning of Ni, which ultimately improves the sulfur resistance of the catalysts. Catalysts that solely contain Ni experience a slower initial rate of coking in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>S due to its adsorption on Ni. In contrast, Ni catalysts enhanced by Mo experience a change in carbon deposition rate from slow to fast, but still have a lower amount of coke compared to the sole Ni catalyst. In the Mo modified Ni catalysts, Mo serves a multiple purpose. It inhibits the sintering and coking of particles, slows down the H2S poisoning of Ni sites, and promotes the recovery of H2S poisoned catalyst. This research establishes a connection between carbon deposition and H<sub>2</sub>S poisoning on Ni-based catalysts. Additionally, it highlights the multiple resistance of Mo species, providing a valuable reference for the design of DRM catalysts that possess exceptional coking resistance and H2S tolerance.

#### CRediT authorship contribution statement

Jiajia Zheng: Investigation, Experimental, Data analysis, Writing – original draft. Sarawoot Impeng: Theoretical simulation. Jun Liu: Data analysis, Writing – review & editing. Jiang Deng: Conceptualization, Investigation, Supervision, Writing – review & editing. Dengsong Zhang: Conceptualization, Investigation, Supervision, Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition.

#### **Declaration of Competing Interest**

All authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest, financial or otherwise in this work; and there are no other relationships or activities that can appear to have influenced the submitted work.

#### **Data Availability**

Data will be made available on request.

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#### Appendix A. Supporting information

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at doi:10.1016/j.apcatb.2023.123369.

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